SOME NEW BOOKS. The Frich Supplement to Locky's Mis-

SECOND ARTICLE. The eighth volume of LECKY's History of Engand in the Eighteenth Century (Appletons) forms the concluding part of the Irish supplement and will be deemed by many readers the mos nteresting section of the work. Notwithttanding his avowed Unionist predilections he author's candor and sense of justice contrain him to make admissions which explain he repugnance of Ireland to legislative union with Great Britain, and amply justify the present movement for home rule. He shows but the rebellion of 1798, if it was not actually nstigated by the heads of the English and irish Governments, was at least seized upon by them as a precious opportunity, and was made the pretext for a unify-ing measure for which, as Lecky himself acinowledges, there was at the time no lemand and no necessity. He does not tesitate to denounce the means by which the tet of Union was carried through the Dublin Parliament as deeply tainted with bribery and porruption, and he points out that the promise ade by its promoters have been violated in he case of Catholics and Protestants alike. So hat, although as a Unionist he is in favor of profiting by an indisputable wrong, and advoof the kingdoms, he cannot blame Irishmen for solding a contrary opinion. It is, therefore out cold comfort that the British Tories can extort from this judicial review of a pivota speed in the relations of England and Ireland. They have the support of Mr. Lecky as a but as an historian he offers an arsenal of arguments to their political opponents.

1.

We cannot attempt to follow Mr. Lecky's actount of the United Irish rebellion of 1798, for this part of the narrative traversing ground lever before surveyed by an authoritative hisiorian, is replete with carefully verified details. and covers some 200 pages. We should not enlirely pass over, however, the French epilogue of the Irish tragedy—the Humbert expedition -to which, considered as a proof of the courage and capacity of the French revolutionists, sufleient attention has not been paid. By an in teresting coincidence, this expedition has just been made the subject of a painstaking monraph published in this country by Mr. V. Gribayedoff, and it is satisfactory to find his conlusions, which were highly flattering to the French invaders, confirmed by Mr. Lecky. The latter does not stint his praise for the absolute control maintained by Gen. Humbert over his soldiers, and for the admirable order enforced throughout the districts which he traversed. lie regards as one of the most noteworth; tests in modern warfare the French comdefeat of Gen. Hutchinson Castlebar, where about 700 Frenchmen routed some 1,700 British soldiers occupying a posttion so strong that it seemed madness for a tired and inferior force to attack it. The affair was over in a few minutes, but it lasted long shough to reveal the irresistible effect of the French fury," and to demolish the tradition that one Englishman could beat three Frenchmen, the fact on that day demonstrated being that one Frenchman of the revolutionary epocl could beat three Englishmen. In the face of a deadly cannonade and of a heavy fire of musketry, the little band of Frenchmen (supposed to be utterly worn out by a night march of fifeen hours) stormed the steep ascent and, with fixed bayonets, rushed upon the bewildered foe. The flight of the British soldiers was long stigmatized as "the race of Castlebar." An English contemporary wrote that the sur render of Burgoyne's army at Saratoga had not affected or surprised him so much as the Castlebar catastrophe. "Never." says Lecky. was there a rout more abject or more comriete, and those who witnessed it must have asked themselves what would have happened if at any time within the two preceding years 12,000 or 15,000 French soldiers like tho Humbert, had been landed." Apropos of what Bumbert accomplished with insignificant resources. Lecky is led to consider how fraught with significance was Bonaparte's abandonment of his projected Irish expedition and his departure for Egypt only a few days before the Irish rebellion. He recalls how Napoleon, re viewing his career at St. Helena, spoke of this decision as one of his great errors. "On what," he said, "do the destinies of empires hang! If instead of the expedition to Egypt I had on ducted one to Ireland what would England have been to-day? and the Continent? and the political world?" Mr. Lecky does not undertake to say whether in 1798 any large expedition could have succeeded in reaching the that had it succeeded in landing at the beginning, or in the middle of the Irish rebellion, its effect would have been most serious. If, he adds, the outbreas in Ireland had taken place a little earlier, or if the Egyptian project had been postponed a little longer, Ireland would probably have become a central object in Bona parte's military policy, and the whole course of events might have been changed.

At and since the date of the passage of the Union Irish patriots have imputed to the English Government the crime of foment ing the rebellion of 1798 for the purpose of demonstrating the inefficiency of the Irish administration and effecting a legislative conlidation of the kingdom. In a memoir drawn up by Dr. McNevin shortly after the union this charge is made with the utmost confidence. Lord Clare, according to McNevin. acknowledged that for many years before the union the destruction of the Irish Parliament had been a main object of his policy. "Joined with him," MoNevin says. "In this conspiracy were many others, and in the number Lord Castlereagh, all of whom, with cold blooded artifice, stirred up an insurrection that was to supply the necessary prefext for executing this nefarious design." He points out that such devices were no new thing in Irish history, though hitherto they had been aimed at agrarian spoliation. "Now a rebellion was intentionally produced by the chief agents of the British Ministry in order to give an opportunity for confiscating the whole political power and the independent character of the country by an Act of Union." O'Connell renewed with emphasis the same accusation He dwelt upon the fact that the Government for many months befere the outbreak of the rebellion had secret information pointing out its most active leaders, and that, in spite of the suspension of the Habeas Corpus act those leaders were suffered to remain at large. He drew attention, also, to the malign significance of a passage in the report of the Secret Committee in which Castierough spoke of the measures that had been taken to cause the rebellion to explode.

II.

Novertheless, this charge, so far as it strikes at men like Pitt and Cornwallis, is pronounced by Lecky too wildly extravagant to require lengthened refutation. He seems to think the accusation sufficiently refuted by the fact that no one supported more strongly the military severities, to which the rebellion has been attributed, than Foster, the Speaker of the Dublin Heuse of Commons who was the most pow-erful of all the opponents of the Union. O'Connell, however, never pretended that all mem hers of the English and Irish Governments were parties to the conspiracy, or that the instigation of the rebellion was avowed by the guilty officials, and least of all to men like Foster. By Lecky's own admission. British statesmen must be held accountable for the insurrection of 1798, if we apply to them the legal touchstone cut profut?—who gained by it? "It cannot. I think, be denied," says this candid historian. "that it is in a high degree probable that a desire to carry a legislative union had a considerable influence in dictating the policy which in fact produced the rebellion and that there were politicians who were pro pared to pursue that policy even at the risk of a rebellion and who were eager to make use of the rebellion when it broke out, for the purpose of accomplishing their design." Locky also re-preduces with approval the following telling passage from Newspham's "State of Ireland." a work which expresses the convictions of a morer be disturbed; a piedge then sup-

perfectly loyal writer. "To affirm." writed Newsham, "that the Government of Ireland facilitated the growth of rebellion for the purpose of effecting the Union would be to hold language not perhaps sufficiently warranted by facts. But to affirm that that rebellion was kept alive for that purpose seems perfectly warrantable. The charge was boldly made in the writer's hearing by an honorable gentle man who held a profitable place under the Crown. And to affirm that the measure never would have been carried into effect without the occurrence of a rebellion similar in respec of its attendant and previous circumstances t that of 1798 is to advance what nineteen in twenty men who were acquainted with the political sentiments of the Irish people at that time will feel little difficulty in assenting to." On these concessions made or endorsed by Mr. Lecky, they who agree with O'Connell as to the attitude of the English Government toward the Irish rebellion of 1798 may be content to

III. In his thirty-second chapter Mr. Lecky enters on a minute description of the means by which a majority of the Irish House of Commons was secured in favor of an Act of Union What the Vicercy, Lord Cornwallis, thought of the instrumentalities he was compelled to use he has himself acknowledged. "My occupa tion." he wrote at the time, "is now of the most unpleasant nature, negotiating and jobbing with the most corrupt people under beaven. I despise and hate myself every hour for engaging in such dirty work." Mr. Lecky quotes other declarations of like tenor, and owns that in the face of them it is idle to dispute the essentially corrupt character of the gencies by which the Union was carried. He points out that the most serious feature in the Parliamentary debates of 1799 was the strenuous opposition to the Union bill by the county members, who represented the great majority of the free constituencies of Ireland. who on all normal occasions supported the Government, and who, even while registing the Union, disclaimed in emphatic terms any intention of opposing other Government measures. A large majority of these county members remained to the end opponents of the Union. The main power, however, in the Dublin Parliament rested with the great borough owners, and so many seats were in the hands of a few men that the difficulty encountered by the Government in securing a majority for the Act of Union is more surpris-ing than the ultimate success. A few of the orough seats were attached to bishopries and were completely at the disposal of the Irish Executive. Others were in the hands of great English absentees: most of them were in the control of men who held lucrative offices in the Government, or who had within the last few years been either ennobled or promoted in the peerage as a price of their political support. If we keep in view the composition of the Irish House of Commons, we can see that the purthase of a few men would be sufficient to turn the scale. There is no doubt that this purchase was speedily and simply effected by promises of peerages. Mr. Lecky shows that immediately after the Union had passed through the Irish House of Commons, but before it had re-ceived the royal assent, Lord Cornwallis sent over a list of sixteen new peerages which had been promised on account of services rendered in carrying the measure. These sixsen peerages, however, by no means comprised the whole of what was done in this direc tion. In the short Vicerovalty of Lord Cornwal is no less than twenty-eight Irish pecrages were created, six Irish Peers obtained English peerages on account of Irish services, and wenty Irish Peers obtained a higher rank in the peerage of Ireland. There was another form of bribe which, in Mr. Lecky's opinion had probably no less influence. If the Union should be carried, no promotion in the Irish peerage would be so much coveted as the position of representative Peer, which would place twenty-eight members of the Irish peerage in the British House of Lords for life. It was easy to foresee that n the first election, at least, the influence

creations and promotions must have been normous, Mr. Lecky thinks that it would have been insufficient but for some supplementary measures. The first of thes was a provision that close or nominaroughs should be treated as private property, and that the patrons should receive Mr. Lecky holds that this compensation can not be regarded as strictly bribery, because it was granted to opponents as well as supporters. Inasmuch as he admits, however, that the compensation removed an obstacle which must have been fatal to the Union, we are warranted in inferring that, in granting it, the Government was actuated rather by self-interest than by a sense of justice. It seems that no fewer than eighty boroughs, returning 160 members, were purchased at the ost of \$6,300,000, which was added to the Irish national debt, and thus made a perpetual harge upon the country. Nor was it by money only that borough owners were won over. Several of the close boroughs were allowed to send one member to the imperial Parliament at Westminster, and in such cases no pecuniar oribe would be required. Another instrument of corruption was at the disposal of the Irish Executive. The same statute which provided for indemnifying borough owners provided also that full compensation should be granted to all persons whose offices were abolished or diminished in value by the Union. By a separate statute, rather more than \$150,000 a year was granted in annuities to officers or attendants of the two Houses of the Irish Parliament. At the same time the whole force of Government patronage iniall its branches was steadily and ruthlessly employed. Not only were conspicuous personages, like Lord Downshire and the Chancello of the Irish Exchequer, removed from their offices because they opposed the Union, but a number of obscure men in non-political places were dismissed because they, or their relatives declined to support it. Hope was a no less powerful agent of corrupt pressure than fear, and Mr. Lecky deems it no exaggeration to say that everything in the gift of the Crown in Ireland, in the Church, the army, the laws, the revenue, was at this period uniformly and persistently devoted to the single object of carrying the Union. The detail of the shameful negotiations and transactions have, for the most part, been destroyed, but enough is known to demonstrate that the rirus of corruption extended and descended through every fibre and artery of the political system. It was by the exercise of such detestable agencies that the minority of 1799 was converted into the majority of 1800.

of the Government would prove decisive

As a matter of fact, the first representative

Peers were virtually nominated by the Lord

Lieutenant, and they consisted exclusively o

But although the weight of such a mass of

supporters of the Union.

It will, of course, be borne in mind that the ntention of the Government to introduce an Act of Union was not divulged at the time when the Irish House of Commons, which passed the measure, was elected. That Assembly, therefore, had no mandate from the constituency to deprive the Irish people of their national exstence. Nevertheless, the Irish Executive refused to dissolve the Parliament and order a new general election after the preliminary resection of the proposed Union in 1799. It is therefore impossible to affirm with certainty what the verdict of the Irish constituencies ernment, which had the best means of information at command, believed that it would be unfavorable. Mr. Lecky has collected many indications of the trend of public opinion outside of the Dublin Parliament, and his conclusion is, that the Protestants at first were vehemently hostile to the Union, whereas the Catholic Bishops were unanimous in favor of the measure, and the great body of Catholics were inclined to view it with approval. The hostility of the Orangemen was allayed by the solemn pledge inserted in the Act of Union that the establishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland should

posed to be as inviolable as that which guaranteed the maintenance of the Presyterian Es-tablishment in Scotland. This pledge, we need not say, was broken when Mr. Gladstone dis-established the Anglican Church in Ireland. As to the good will of the Irish Catholics, this was obtained by an explicit promise that after the Union the British Parliament would was three great kindred measures, namely, the emancipation of the Catholics, the commutation of tithes, and the payment of the priests. Every one of these promises was broken by William Pitt, although Cornwallis, Castlereagh and Cooke refused to serve under a Ministry that set at naught their compact with the Irish Catholics. The Unionists of our day. who affirm the validity of a Union conceived in fraud and brought forth in perjury, will scarcely relish the scathing terms in which Mr. Lecky denounces Pitt's breach of faith.

Did the end justify the means? Was the resort to gross corruption permissible under the ris major of supreme political necessity? Was he Union of Great Britain and Ireland Indis pensable at the time when it was effected? If not, then the shameful means by which it was carried are wholly indefensible. Here, again, Unionists will gain but little satisfaction by putting Mr. Lecky in the witness box. In ages 494-502 the searching and decisive question, was the Act of Union necessary, is exmined at length by the historian, and it is answered firmly and roundly in the negative If," he says, "the Irish Parliament had consisted mainly or to any appreciable extent of men who were disloyal to the connection, and whose sympathies were on the side of rebellion or with the enemies of England, the English Ministers, would, I think, have been amply justified in employing almost any means to bolish it. . . . In a time of such national perilas England was passing through in the great Napoleon war, when the whole existence and future of the empire were trembling most loubtfully in the balance, history would not, I think, condemn with severity any means that were required to withdraw the direction of Irish resources from disloyal hands. In such moments of agony and crisis, self-preservation becomes the supreme end, and the ranscendent importance of saving the empire from destruction suspends and eclipses all other rules. But," adds Mr. Lecky, "it cannot be too clearly understood or too emphatically stated that the legislative union was not an act of this nature. The Parliament which was abolished was a Parliament of the most unqualified royalists; it had shown itself ready to make every sacrifice in its power for the maintenance of the empire, and from the time when Arthur O'Connor and Lord Edward Fitzgerald passed beyond its walls, it probably did not contain a single man who was really disaffected. The dangers to be feared on this side were not imminent, but disant; and the war and the rebellion created not a necessity, but an opportunity." By this explicit and sweeping concession of Mr. Lecky's they who strive to palliate the crime of which the Irish people was the victim by alleging that legislative union was essential to the safety of Great Britain, are left without an inch of ground on which to rest their plea.

V. Injustious as was the plot to rob the Irish people of the inestimable privilege of self-govrnment, and infamous as were the means by which the plot was carried out, yet so broken n spirit and so pathetically grateful for a gleam of hope were the Catholic majority that the wrong might have been condoned by the sufferers, had the promises which represented the only moral consideration for the Act of Union been fulfilled. Mr. Lecky has no loubt that Pitt could have fulfilled thos pledges, and he sees that by a violation of them Pitt not only stamped on him self ineffaceable dishonor, but inflicted upon England an irremediable injury. Had the Irish Catholies found them selves soon after the Union immeasurably etter off than they had ever been before, had they obtained the boons which were the price of sequiescence—the boons of political emanripation, commutation of tithes, and payment f priests by the State-they would have plessed the measure which had wrought the onsolidation of the kingdoms. On this point Mr. Lecky testifies that "the continued disaffection of Ireland was much less due to the Union, or to the means by which the Union was carried, than to the shipwreek of the great measures of conciliation which ought to have ecompanied it, and which were intended to

be its immediate consequence. Mr. Lecky says that of all the anticipations his own, to be bored and finished under Ericsseld out in 1800 none has been so signally alsified as the prediction that the Union would take Irish affairs out of the domain of English action. That is true, but the obvious deduction from experience is that the right way to take Irish affairs out of the domain of English action is to commit the management of them to Irishmen. The historian discloses his preossessions by an attempt on his last page to draw an utterly untenable analogy between reland and India. "There is," says Mr. Lecky, "no fact in modern history more memorable than the contrast between the comple mocess with which England has governed her Eastern empire, with more than 200,000,000 inhabitants, and her signal failure in governing a neighboring island, which contains, at most, about 8,000,000 disaffected sub-Strange that a historian who shows himself upon the whole so candid and open-minded should not perceive the deadly insult implied in this comparison of Irishmen with the natives of India. These volumes have been written in vain if they have not demon strated, not only that England has no moral ight to govern Ireland, but that Englishmen have proved themselves unable to discharge the functions that they have shamefull usurped. Mr. Lecky himself bears conclusive estimony to the fact that Ireland never should have been deprived of the power of self-gov

John Erlesson.

The marvellous development of modern steam engineering has occurred within a period o near to us that the history of a man who died only last year, as told in The Life of Joh Ericsson, by WILLIAM C. CHUBCH (Scribners is really a history of the whole grand achievement. When Ericsson was born in 1803 at a little Swedish mining settlement, the possibilities of locomotion were limited practically to the muscle ower which had been employed for the purpos ever since man had emerged from the lowest state of savagery, and to the uncertain move-ments of the winds and tides. Beasts of burden on the land and sails on the ocean furnished th motive power. When Eriesson was an infant of four years Fulton made his first trial trip of the steamboat Clermont, running from New fork to Albany and back at the average speed of five miles an hour; but it was not until of ocean steam navigation was finally solved by Ericsson, who had already won engineer-ing distinction by the application of steam as

In 1829 he had contributed essentially to the olution of the problem of steam locomotion by building in seven weeks a railway locome tive which came out a scientific victor in the gractical contest with the construction of Stephenson, though the actual prize was awarded to his rival because of minor defects of work-manship which prevented Ericsson's machine from strictly conforming to the conditions. His engine, the Novelty, shot by Stephenson's Rocket "like a projectile." as the observers o the contest reported. It ran at the average speed of nearly thirty-two miles an hour, and its deficiencies, easily remediable, were due to hasty constructi and not to any essential error. It was also remarkable for its application of the principle o artificial draught, not exhibited in Stephenson's engine, and without which the moder son's engine, and without which the motor's claim to the practical introduction of the screw propeller has been disputed in some quarters. but Col. Church :presents a mass of facts and

high professional testimony which justify him in deciding that "it is to Ericsson, unquestion-ably, that we owe the revolution in steam navigation resulting from the demonstration of the possibilities of the screw propeller."

As Dr. Lardner said in his lectures
on science in 1846, "it was not until its value had been thoroughly demonstrated that any attempt was made to wrest from Capt. Ericsson his justly earned reward." The possibilities of the screw may have suggested themselves vaguely to other minds, but, in the words of his biographer, "Ericsson alone invented a submerged screw, so complete at the outset in its mechanical details that it was capable of immediate use." There is no question whatever that by his introduction of the screw into the war steamer, the Princeton 1842-44, he revolutionized naval construction and naval warfare. For first time the machinery was carried bewater line out of the reach of hostile shot, and the well-founded objections of the old sailors that the use of steam imperilled the safety of vessels and added to heir dangers was thoroughly removed. Yet Ericsson encountered the active hostility of the British Admiralty to the introduction of the new device. "Even if the propeller has the power of propelling a vessel," declared Sir William Symonds, the Surveyor of the British navy in 1837, "it will be found altogether useess in practice, because the power being supplied in the stern, it will be absolutely impossible to make the vessel steer!" The Admiralty Lords, therefore, took no interest in the invenion, and, no matter how successful the trials. the engineering corps, to whom they went for pinions, were arrayed in stubborn and skeptical opposition. No one except an enthusias tic inventor and thoroughly trained engineer like Ericsson would have persisted against such discouragement. Accordingly he denounced the Admiralty as

ools and idiots and came to this country to find a more congenial field. It is apparent from his correspondence that it was not his original intention to remain here longer than to complete engagements he had made with Commodore Stockton, by whom he had been induced to cross the ocean; but new vexations complications, ambitions, and opportunities prevented his return to Europe and gave us he inestimable advantage which came from the fruits of his genius. He landed in New York in November, 1839. At that time there were no steam vessels in our navy, though as long before as 1813 Fulton had trived his Demologos or Fulton, the first war steamer ever built, a floating infernal machine which was never entirely finished, with furnaces for red hot shot. submarine guns sending 100-pound balls twelve feet below the water line, and an engine for discharging a vast column of water upon decks and through portholes. Stockton's onfidence that he would be allowed to build one of three vessels of war authorized by Congrees in 1839 was the motive which prompted him to secure the aid and presence of Ericsson who came bither with detailed plans of a steam frigate, including, besides the model of the vessel, her engines and motive power, her guns and the method of mounting, siming and firing them. Here also the professional sentiment of the navy rose in opposition You can never convince a sailor," wrote Ericsson to Stockton: but at last it was decided to build two frigates, one after the plans of Ericason and one after those of Capt Hunter of the navy, whose project was for a vessel with submerged paddle wheels. Work was not begun on the Princeton, Ericsson's hip, until 1841, and meanwhile he secured the prize for the best plan of a steam fire engine, offered by the Mechanics' Institute after the great fire of 1837 in New York, he having previously had experience in devising similar and successful machine in London He also exerted himself to introduce his proseller on our canals and inland waters so successfully that, before the Princeton went into commission, the principle had been applied to twenty-four merchant vessels. Ericsson had brought with him from Eng and a wrought-iron gun of his own designing gooped up for the remedy of its transverse weakness, an expedient now in universal use

ion at one of our navy yards after having though charges of from twenty-five to thirtyive pounds of powder, enormous for that day. and a 212-pound shot were used. Aimed by Ericeson, it had also pierced a target of 41% inches of wrought Iron, thus so early demonstrating that that thickness of armor is no protection against artillery fire. Stockton, accordingly, was ambitious to build a gun of son's direction, of the same calibra, twelve inches, but a foot more in diameter at the breach and much heavier. The construction of this Stockton gun attracted the greatest attention and awakened the national pride Because of the supposed superiority of the American iron it was believed that it would be capable of sustaining the explosion of any amount of powder that could be put into it and it was the largest mass of iron that at that time had been brought under the forging hammer. It was massive by the side of the slender Eriesson gun, which was its companion on the Princeton: and vet this huge gun on the Princeton in 1844, killing Mr. Unahur the Secretary of State: Mr. Gilmer, the Secretary of the Navy, and several others of a great party who had been invited aboard the vessel to witness and celebrate its triumphs. Ericsson had counselled Stockton to make the exhibition with the smaller gun of his own construction hough he does not appear to have suspected the weakness of the Peacemaker. Of course so terrible a catastrophe threw the whole Union into excitement, and cast a cloud over he splendid achievement in the Princeton but a court of inquiry subsequently relieved Stockton from all blame. He was only too confident, too anxious to justify and increase th applause he had already received because of his patronage of Ericsson. Meanwhile, as we have said. Ericsson's original gun stood the strain of trial without harm, though it had been fired more than one hundred times before it

or that purpose. The gun is still on exhibi-

was taken aboard the Princeton.

As to the Princeton herself, her success was rithout a cloud, complete and unquestionable The improvements in the art of war adopted n board the Princeton." declared Stockton may be productive of more important results than apything that has occurred since the in-vention of gunpowder." In this expression he vas so far justified that the new vessel revolutionized naval construction and naval war fare. The screw replaced the paddle wheels. and modern navies were made possible. Col. Church gives partionlars of the unhappy disagreement between the great inventor and Stockton, and the injustice of the Navy Department toward Ericsson, but we pass them by as of minor importance compared with the

fact of the grand achievement. Neither is it necessary for us to follow the career of Ericsson in detail until the day when the Monitor again revolutionized naval warfare. Col. Church presents a surprising nar rative of the obstacles thrown in the way o the inventor by official jealousy, ignorance lindness, and suspicion. From the launching of the Princeton up to his last brief illness Ericsson's theories of naval warfare showed steady development. He began by first utilizing steam effectively for its purposes, then muloyed armor and the principle of the impregnable floating fort, and finally reached the conclusion of rejecting frontlads alto-gether in favor of swift-moving little vessels like his Destroyer, carrying a single gun designed to plant a heavy charge some high explosive under the armor of a vessel at close quarters. He would drive navies from the seas as obsolete instruments. A battle at sea seemed to him of no account in nodern war. The defence of harbors was the only problem before his matured judgment. What may be done with a naval vessel, with even the latest improvements in armament, is shown in the results of recent target practice on one of our new cruisers, from which 600 shots were fired at a target without one hitting

it, though the vessel started at a distance of 500 yards and advanced steadily toward the object of attack. Every gun that could be brought to bear was also turned on a target representing a torpedo boat, heavy guns machine guns, and quick-firing guns, and yet, out of 1,000 snots fired, only 13 hit. If the vessels had been in action, as in the first instance, probably not a single hit would have been registered. These are the conditions o actual warfare at sen, except that the difficulties would be multiplied by the excitemen of conflict, and it was with reference to such experience, and not to mere theoretical opin ions, that Eriesson shaped his conclusions that we are approaching the utter abandon ment of the naval wariare for which civiliza

that we are approaching the utter abandonment of the naval warfare for which civilization is now pouring out money so layishly. He had the prevision of genus, directed by professional training, in whose completeness he had few rivals.

We have not space to more than refer to Ericsson's collateral and incidental inventions and scientific centributions, nor to describe his lifelong studies and experiments for the utilization of hot air and solar heat, a wonderfully interesting field of inquiry, into which he entered with indefatigable industry, and to which Col. Church gives the extended history the importance of the subject and the originality of the methods and conclusions make necessary. The sketch of the great inventor's character and the glimpses of his life present to us a man inspired by enthusiasm for scientific accomplishment, but never visionary and impracticable, single minded in his pursuit of light, impatient of obstacles and yet unconquerable by them, unworldly after the fashion of self-seekers, generous tender hearted, terrible in his wrath, but gentle in his kindness, and uncostentatious in his many charities.

Col. Church writes in a plain, simple, and lucid style, wholly without literary affectation, and he has generally performed his laborious duty with skill, judgment, conscientiousness, and in a way to keep the interest of the reader sustained throughout. The volumes form one of the most important of recent additions to the literature of biography, and they are made of the more practical value for reference by an index of praiseworthy completeness, and the more attractive by many illustrations.

ANECDOTES OF THE COMPOSERS.

Emphatic Handel-Cynical Haydn-Single minded Mozart-Methodical Chernbini. Here are a few fresh anecdotes concerning the wit, humor, and eccentricity of the old

composers on the Continent. Georg Friedrich Handel directed for some time the opera in London. He led on the harr One evening, just as the orchestra was finishing the overture, an attendant told him that the prima donna, Signora Cuzzoni, had sent down word from her dressing room that she was too ill to sing. Handel knew that her action was mere caprice. In a passion he let fall his harp, sprang up to her room, burst open her door, and, seizing the songstress dragged her toward a window.

"I know you are a she devil." he shouted but I will compel you to behave yourself. If you don't go directly to the stage and sing you will be lying out there on the pavement in

This argument was too much for the prime ionna. She hurried down stairs and sang like a nightingale.

Händel played the harp so beautifully that Handel played the barp so beautifully that his accompaniment often attracted more attention from the audience than the singing. A jealous Italian tenor after a humiliating experience or two with a thus distracted house swore that the next time Handel tried to monopolize the applause he would jump down from the stage and smash the harp.

"Do it do it," said Handel to the tenor, after having heard of the remark. "Only let me know beforehand when you will do it, for, by proper advertising, this performance may be made much more popular and prolitable than your eluging."

made much more popular and prolitable than your sluging.
Joseph Haydn long lived away from his wife. One day a friend directed his attention to a bundle of unopened letters addressed to him and lying on his study table.

Ah you must not notice them. I don't. They are from my wife. She sends me the odious things once a month and I answer them once a month without having read the addresses. She does the same by my lotters to her.

A young musician asked Mozart what to do in beginning to compose music.

"Do nothing," was the answer.

"But you did composition when much younger than I"

"Certainly; but I asked no questions. If a man has the soul for it, he is shaken and tortured by it. He is forced to do it, and asks not how or why."

Mozart was the most absent minded of men.

man has the soul for it, he is shaken and tortured by it. He is forced to do it, and asks not how or why.

Mozart was the most absent minded of men. While he was busy with the composition of "Don Juan" he made a trip to Paris. He took chambers, and sat down immediately to work. After several hours he looked at the clock to find it long past dinner time. He clapped on his hat with all haste, and haif ran, haif trotted to the Palais Royal. Just as he stepped on the threshold a new idea budded in his mind. He walked in hesitatingly and abstractedly, sat down mechanically, and glanced thoughtlessly at the menu.

"A portion of vermicelli soup," he muttered. The soup was brought, but the composer did not stir. Five minutes, ten minutes—a quarter of an hour passed, and the soup grew cold while the music of "Don Juan" took form in Mozart's mind. Finsily the walter removed the soup and asked what next.

"Fried sole," was Mozart's answer.

The soup was carried off untouched, and shortly the sole was placed before him. Mozart remained still completely absorbed in the thoughts of the composition. Six dishes were served consecutively with intervals of fifteen or twenty minutes, and all were carried away untasted and apparently unseen. Two hours after his entrance into the Palais Royal a small euro of black coffee was on the table be-

served consecutively with intervals of fifteen or twenty minutes, and all were carried away untasted and apparently unseen. Two hours after his entrance into the Palais Royal a small cup of black coffee was on the table before him. He raised his hand as if to take it, then suddenly his closed fist fell on the saucer, breaking it to flinders, and sending the coffee in every direction. "At last I have it!" he shouted, as he sprang from his chair. Before his untasted dinner he had composed the linale of the third act of "Don Juan."

Luigi Cherubini, the creator of "The Water Carrier," and an ardent admirer of Mozart, was his antipode in the method of his daily life. He could endure no perfumery, and usually left a room whenever a scented hand-kerchief was drawn from a woman's pocket. He was exceedingly painstaking in every detail of life. Everything with him was carafully regulated. The smallest bit of his wardrobe and toilet articles was numbered. In his most prosperous seasons his overcost, the crowning piece of his wardrobe, would bear the number 449 or 450. In less prosperous times, however, the number might fall as low as 225 or 230. On the morning of the day on which he died he called to his nurse for a pocket handkerchief. She brought it. He unioided it carefully, looked at one corner and read there. "No. 8."

"This won't do." he said. "Everything must be done in order, and here I have handker-chief. No. 8, while the last one I used was No. 6."

"Yes, I know," answered the nurse: "but a

No. 6."
"Yee, I know," answered the nurse; "but a drop of cologne fell on No. 7, and I knew you could not endure the odor of it."
"That makes no difference," said Cherubini, "Everything must be done in order, Bring to No. 7."

in No. 7."

The handkerchief was brought and Cherubini, after making a terrible face on account of the door from the cologne, rubbed it across his nose with mutterings of disgust. Then he threw it on the floor and said: "Now give me No. 8." No. 8 was the last handkerchief that No. 8. No. 5 was the last handselving has the composer ever used.

One winter afternoon a caller on Cherubini was surprised to find him in an unheated room in company with three full-bearded men, who had their feet in tubs of ice water.

In the name of Heaven, what are you doing "In the name of Heaven, what are you doing here?" asked his friend.
"To-morrow we shall give a new mass," answered Cherubini, "and I need a couple of very heavy basses. None of the men here has a voice heavy enough and so I am trying to deepen their notes a little."

STALKED BY A PANTHER. Narrow Escape of a Munter Who Didn't Quite Understand His Gus.

From the Seattle Post-Intelligence

Promitie Scattle Post-Instelligence.

Raiph Flynn, a rancher living at Wayne, on the Seattle, Lake Shore and Eastern Railway, had a dangerous encounter with a panther yesterday forenoon and narrowly escaped the claws of the beast.

Flynn started hunting early yesterday morning, taking with him a Winchester rifle of the latest patent, which he had just bought and had not learned to handle with skill. He was looking principally for deer, and had gone about five miles through a deep thicket when he came suddenly upon the partially devoured carcass of a sheep, which had evidently taken prey to a panther. Hemembering reports of sheep having been killed by whit animals in his neighborhood. Flynn hastened an nerving himself for a tussle with a cougar or some equally fierce beast. With the assurance that his gun was prepared he cautiously eyed every nook he passed occasionally seeing fresh tracks of varmints. Flynn travelled on about two miles in this manner without success and gave up the chase on that line. He had just turned to retrace his steps when his eye caucht what seemed a dog's head seering at him over a log. A second look proved to flynn that it was a panther instead of a dog. Taking deliberate aim, Flynn rested his rife against a tree and fired at the animal's head. The ball only stunned the brute which with a crazy loan, made forward at Flynn. The facter's delay in reloading on account of the new patent, nearly proved fatal to himself, as the panther was within twenty yards of him when he shot it dead testween the eyes. The brute was between Flynn and the sheep's carcass, and had followed him by its keen sent for two miles.

It measured in the sets from tip to tip, and its hide is now a trophy highly prized by Flyan.

PORES WORTH BRADING.

Since We Must Die.

Though we must die. I would not die ... When fields are trown and bleek. When wild geess stream across the sky. And the cart lodgs timbers creak. For it would be so lone and drear To steep beneath the snew. When children caro! Christmas cheer. And Christmas rafters glow.

Nor would I dis. though we must dis.
When weamlines blindly bleat.
When cnekoo laughs, and lovers sigb.
And O, tollive is west!
When covalips onne again, and Spring
is winsoms with ineir breath.
And Life's in love with everything.
With averything but Death.

Let me not die, though we must die.
When bowis are brimmed with cream,
When milot own in ine meadows lie,
Or wade amid the stream;
When dawy dimpiet rivers smile
To see the face of June,
And iad and lass meet at the strie,
Or roam beseath the moon.

And had and has an it.

Or roam beneath the moon.

Iv.

Since we must die, then lat me die
When flows the harvest sie.
When the reaper lays the sickle by.
And taketh down the flasi;
When all we prized, and all we planned,
la ripe and stored at last.
And anumn looks arrow the land.
And ponders on the past:

And ponders on the past:

Then let me die.

Alvent Austric.

A Long-felt Want, A Long-fest Want,
From the St. Jamers Guzette.
The preachers strive and joule,
And each exploits the true;
But oh, for some apposite
To teach us nomething new !
"We look before and after,
And pine for what is not:"
We look for something datter
Than anything we've got.

We slummed: it was a blonder. One quickly sires of slams. One tires of blood and thunder. And italicatish drums. The Ewightsi embraces. Each day, some ravored cult; We seek with earness faces. Some fresh Quicanque wait.

I'd like to see that stooping form and heary head again, To see the honest, hearly smile that cheered his fellow Oh, could I kiss the kindly lips that spake no creature wrong.

And share the rapture of that heart that everflowed with song:

On, could I hear the little tune he whistled long ago, when he did battle with the griefs he would not have us know!

From the Cape and them.

Not long since to look on her face was a pleasure,

he pleasant to me every feature had grown.

And I thought that the man would enjoy a rare treas

Who'd have the good fortune to call her his own. Her voice when she spoke had rare melody in it lies smile was a sunbeam to comfort and bleas; I was sure har affection, whoever could win it. I Would be the best fortune a man could possess. But though I have neither been cold nor audacious. Yet in her demeaner a change I can see. To other perhaps she's as kini and as gracious As over she was, but she isn't to ma. The light that illumined her eyes has departed; She's slient, constrained, and her manner is cold. And I wouder how ever I thought her kind-hearted. For never a smile on her face I behold. Perhaps she is different to others who love her.
But women are puntles, as all men agree.
And the paradox strange in this maid I discover,
who a aways most distant when nearest to me.

A dash of rain.
Drenched vine, clinging, miserable.
Bared branches stretched hopelessly to the heavens.
The scent of leaves and earth-mould impregnating wild grapes festooning rail fences.
The hording of auts by the serie folk in hellow trees and cranics.

ind cranules.

The sowing of winter wheat.
A crackling of twize beneath foot.
Shore fields bearing patient witness to the harvest.
Milk weed reminiscent and seedy.
The paling of sun rays.
The withdrawal of caloric from the air.
A shrinking of tissues.
A shrinking of tissues. leadful of feathers down wafted from the land of

perboreane arrival of Boreas en antie. Winter, regal, toy hearted, we salute thee KATBRINE GROWBAN, To a Priend Estranged.

I can recall the time when first we met.

(if comradeship in days that seemed divine.

A treasure of remembrances is mine;

Thy nobleness is constant with me yet.

But how or why we parted I forget.

If c'er I knew; nor does one fault of thine I well with the recollection I enshrine; I only know I miss thee, and regret. .

I can recall the time when first we met.

O. friend estranged, is this small world so wide That our two paths must be apart forever?

If trivial joys congential minds divide.

Or sordid cares the hearts of brothers sever,

What hope of resulting can there be

In the dim After of othersity? Hanny Tynamic. ITALIAN MONEY FOR SCHOOLS HERE. A Mabit of the Italian Government that Italian Immigrants Seem to Approciate.

THE SUN published recently a despatch from New Orleans in which it was asserted that the Italian Government has been aiding the Italian school in that city with money and books. The Italian Government, it was asserted, took a great deal of interest in the affairs of the school, and endeavored in every way possible to establish it on a sound basis. It was further asserted in the same despatch that the Italian Government was in the habit of alding the schools established in this country for the instruction of its former citizens and their children.

Considerable adverse criticism was aroused by the publication of these assertions. The sentiment of American citizens throughout the country, as recorded in the newspapers, appeared to be against this interference of a foreign power with the domestic concerns o a large number of persons who had settled in this country. Investigation has proved that to a large degree, the New Orleans despatch was correct. There is at least one school in this city which receives aid from the Italian Government, with the understanding that the Italian language shall be taught to the pupils. who are all either native Italians or descendants of Italian immigrants. Baron Riva, the Italian Consul in this city,

who was seen by the reporter, said upon this subject: "The Italian Government has always" been in the habit of aiding schools for Italian children. It sends assistance to such schools The highlight over being and the second of the control of the cont wherever they are established. In fact. Italian schools in the countries of the Old World receive much more assistance than is given to any on this side. The Italian schools at Tunis. Smyrna, and Constantinople are practically

BUNCO AS IT IS DONE IN PARIS.

The Experience of Mme. Prevent, Bealer in Jewels, Cost \$15,000. The police records of the French capital have

just been enriched by another of those clever bits of Parisian roguery that make plain American bunco-steering appear in comparison as inartistic as hod carrying or sandbagging. Paris dailles published a few weeks ago this announcement: "A splendid wedding will take place here to-

ward the end of the month. M. W. Thompson. a millionaire American broker, will marry Miss Ellen Barber, the only daughter of the highly respected Rev. J. M. Barber of New Zealand. About ten days after this notice appeared a man with a white beard and in clerical gar-ments introduced himself at the jewelry shop of Mme. Prevest as the Rev. Dr. Barber. and ments introduced himself at the jewelry shop of Mme. Prevost as the Rev. Dr. Barber, and asked that an attendant be sent with a great variety of jewels to his house in Bassand street, in order that Mr. Thompson, his future son-in-iaw, might choose fitting wedding sifts for the coming bride. The old man designated some \$10,000 worth of jewels as the most likely lot for his future son-in-law's taste and left. The next morning hime. Prevost herself took the jewels designated and some \$5,000 worth more to the house in Bassand street. Bhe was led into a splendid reception room by a maid servant, who took her card to the "pastor." Bhe was received in a few minutes by the old man in a saloon crowded with evidences of the weith of the occupants. He said:

"My daughter is to ill torise. Her flance is with her and if you will step in they will make their selection together."

The "pastor" opened the door to admit the caller to his daughter's bedside, but was stopped by a woman's volce:

The woman must come to-morrow. I am not able to see strangers to-day.

"But, my dear child, you can just take a glance or two, so as to tell us what you wish," remonstrated the "pastor," and then turning to Mme. Provost in The poor girl has a terrible hesadiche and objects to seeing strangers. I will just give her a look at the things myself, and then give the order."

He took the tray with the \$15,000 worth of jewels, gave Mme. Prevost an album of views of the Assemite for her entertainment, and then went to the woman in the next room. He returned to chat with Mme. Prevost, but was called away by the announcement. "I have made my choice. The pastor remained away five, ten, fifteen minutes. Mme. Prevost became nervous, and knocked at the bedroom door. No answer, She tried it. It was locked, she hurried to the other doors. They too, were fast. She screamed and pounded until the janitor came to her rescue. The false pastor and daventers and maidservant had some and have not been seen since. They had taken paid the rem.